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The Effects of Life Space Crisis Intervention training on levels of teacher stress and time-out room referrals

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The effects of Life Space Crisis Intervention training on levels of teacher stress and time-out room referrals.

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Abstract

Student behavioral problems are often cited as factors contributing to school violence and teacher stress. School violence and teacher stress ultimately contribute to a deterioration in the quality of the educational system in our society. Life Space Crisis Intervention (LSCI) is a strategy for using student problems as an opportunity to promote insight and behavior change. The intent of this study was to empirically examine the effects of a Life Space Crisis Intervention training. The outcome variables were teacher responses to a self report measure of stress (The Teacher Stress Inventory) and number and severity of time out room referrals. The sample consisted of 21 teachers, classroom aides, and other school professionals from a central New York self contained special education facility serving ten area school districts. It was hypothesized that teacher stress levels and time-out referrals/ severity and would decrease throughout the year following the Life Space Crisis Intervention training. Results indicated that those staff members who attended either two days or five days of LSCI training reported lower levels of stress post training than those that attended no training sessions, although this finding was not statistically significant. In regards to time out room referrals, results indicated statistically significant post training decreases in the number of referrals. Intensity of referrals, and total minutes spent in time out increased. Limitations and confounds affecting this study (including national events and programmatic mandates) are addressed in the conclusion.

The Effects of Life Space Crisis Intervention Training on Levels of Teacher Stress and Time-Out Room Referrals

Introduction

Behavior and discipline problems in our schools have become epidemic, spreading far beyond those children who are receiving Special Education (Tompkins & Tompkins-McGill, 1993). Student behavioral problems are often cited as factors contributing to school violence (Dwyer, 1999; Dwyer, Osher, & Hoffman, 2000; US Department of Education, 1998) and teacher stress (Blase, 1982; Cains & Brown, 1998; Friedman, 1995; Long & Morse, 1996). Life Space Crisis Intervention (LSCI) is a strategy for using student problems as an opportunity to promote insight and behavior change (Fecser & Long, 1996). This technique was refined from the original Life Space Interview technique developed by Fritz Redl (1957). Both proponents and critics of LSCI agree that the technique provides an effective means of improving adult-child relationships (Fecser & Long, 1996; Gardner, 1990). Previous research on the effectiveness of LSCI presents a plethora of what initially appears to be positive results. However, the majority of these results are purely qualitative and/or prone to the influences of experimental confounds (Gardner, 1990; Long, Stroeffler, Krause & Jung, 1961; Morse & Small, 1959; Naslund, 1987; Tompkins, 1965; Tompkins & Tompkins-McGill, 1993). This study empirically tested the use of LSCI as a means to decrease behavior problems and teacher stress.

Statement of the Problem

School violence and teacher stress ultimately contribute to a deterioration in the quality of our society's educational system (see Dwyer, 1999; Dwyer et al., 2000; Maslach, 1981; Skiba & Peterson, 2000). Current practices of discipline, punishment, and exclusion are ineffective precursors of behavior change (Beck & Dolce-Maule, 1998; Cains & Brown, 1998; Jones & Jones, 1990; Nelson & Roberts, 2000; Redl, 1959; Skiba & Peterson, 2000), and often serve to alienate children (Dwyer, 1999; Skiba & Peterson,

2000) or escalate the crisis situation (Beck, 1997; Cains & Brown, 1998; Dwyer, 1999; Hewitt, 2000; Nelson & Roberts, 2000; Redl, 1957).

Importance of this Study

The present study is important because it addresses both the issue of student behavior problems and the issue of teacher stress. Life Space Crisis Intervention training teaches staff how to recognize and deal with the feelings behind student behavior (Fecser & Long, 1996; Hewitt, 2000; Long & Morse, 1996). The US Department of Education has acknowledged that certain feelings may be precursors to violent outbursts (US Department of Education, 1998). Recognition of these feelings is a crucial step in decreasing violence in our schools (Dwyer, 1999; Dwyer, Osher & Hoffman, 2000). If student behavior can be brought under control or at least better understood, teacher stress could be reduced (Cains & Brown, 1998; Forman, 1990; Friedman, 1995).

Research has shown that when teachers are stressed, quality of care/service is effected -- teachers may display hostility or negative affect toward students, depersonalize their students, increase absenteeism, or develop personal health issues (Beck, 1997; Blase, 1982; Forman, 1990; Friedman, 1995; Maslach, 1981; Maslach & Jackson, 1986). This study attempts to show that training in LSCI can reduce behavior problems and thereby reduce levels of teacher stress. If this is empirically validated, school districts may have an effective tool available to them.

Order of Presentation

The following section provides an overview of the research relevant to this topic. It starts with defining crisis, and outlines how current practices of punishment and coercion contribute to crisis escalation. The literature relating student crisis to teacher stress and detrimental effects are then reviewed. In looking at potential solutions to these problems, the importance of emotions and the need for caring relationships are discussed. Life Space Crisis Intervention is offered as one possible solution. The concluding

subsections provide an evolutionary history of LSCI, and discusses some of its major components.

Literature Review

What we need to know about crisis. Before going any further in your reading, take a moment to picture a school aged child having a crisis in the classroom. Perhaps what comes to mind is an irate or upset student, refusing to work, perhaps yelling or swearing, perhaps displaying physical violence, or perhaps storming out of the classroom. In their manual for teaching residential child care staff how to therapeutically deal with children in crisis, Budlong et al. (1993) behaviorally defined crisis as "a sudden change in the equilibrium or balance of the individual or in the order of the social system, i.e., the group"(p. 15). They further asserted that a person in crisis has "run out of or never learned effective, rational, constructive ways of coping with internal or interpersonal problems and difficulties"(p. 15). As tension and anxiety levels increase, the individual becomes less able to find a solution, feels helpless, and is thrust into a state of great emotional upset (Beck & Dolce-Maule, 1998).

Although the traditional focus of crisis is related to individual or environmental deficits, the crisis intervention literature has long recognized the opportunity inherent in any crisis situation (Greene & Lee, 1996). The Chinese translation of the word 'crisis' actually consists of two separate characters which literally mean 'danger' and 'opportunity' (Budlong, Holden, & Monney, 1993). Crises are often the times when people are most open to learning and ready to accept help (Tompkins & Tompkins-McGill, 1993). A person can experience notable personal growth if the crisis situation is handled successfully (Greene & Lee, 1996). A study by Fagen (1996) showed that those who have adjusted after long periods of crisis as opposed to those who have been unable to adjust differ less in the amount of stress experienced than in how well they learned alternative means of coping with the stress.

The question then becomes: how can one effectively move from the irate, upset student to a situation conducive to personal growth and learning? No one person necessarily has control over another person's behavior, although we each have control over how we choose to respond to any given behavior (Beck, 1997). As an example, we can look at a hostage negotiator entering a hostage crisis. If the negotiator goes in with an authoritarian attitude, demanding the release of the hostages without acknowledging the emotional state of the hostage taker, odds are, one or more people, including the negotiator will be killed. More likely what happens is that the negotiator goes in and acknowledges the criminal's level of stress, asking what it is he wants or needs. From there, the negotiator is [hopefully] able to enter into a calm discussion. In the same way, a teacher faced with an upset student must operate under similar assumptions.

Approaching a student in an authoritarian manner, defined as demanding obedience and control, while being unresponsive to the child's emotional needs (Papalia, Olds, & Feldman, 1999) can be dangerous - the student may feel intimidated or threatened, causing behavior to escalate and increasing the risk of injury. Hewitt (2000) discussed an interview with three teachers who had been assaulted by students. None of the students had simply approached the teachers and started swinging. The attacks all happened after periods of interacting with each other. One teacher freely admitted encroaching on the student's personal space and swearing at the student with whom she was dealing. Her justification was, "The only way the girl would understand was if she was spoken to at her own level." (p. 99).

If met with strict authoritarianism, sarcasm, or other negatively perceived affects, the crisis situation will invariably escalate -- the person in crisis will not utilize the situation as an opportunity to learn, because they will not feel safe (Budlong et al., 1993; Long & Morse, 1996; Redl, 1957). Even in the residential treatment environment where crises often escalate to the point where physical intervention is necessitated, the ultimate goal of the physical intervention is to keep the child safe. It is that goal which makes the

interventions therapeutic as opposed to disciplinary. The US Department of Education (1998) acknowledged in its *Early Warning, Timely Response* guide that "it is very important that children feel safe when expressing their needs, fears, and anxieties to school staff...[if not] feelings of isolation, rejection, and disappointment are more likely to occur, increasing the probability of acting out behaviors"(p. 4).

Lack of uniformity and/or predictability complicates the issue of student crisis and teacher response. What constitutes crisis for one student will not constitute crisis for another student. One student will be able to take a joke, while another will fly off the handle at the perceived insult. It is almost impossible for a teacher to be prepared for every possible situation. For that reason, crisis planning should include training for teachers in a wide range of skills - from dealing with escalating classroom situations to responding to school wide crises (Pitcher & Poland, 1992). Teachers need a clear cut choice of strategies which will enable the fostering of change in students' patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving (Fecser & Long, 1996).

Teachers today are facing increasingly more challenging and more disruptive students in their classrooms (Tompkins & Tompkins-McGill, 1993). Cains and Brown (1998) reported that many teachers find it easier to devise strong consequences for severe behavior problems than to assign lower level consequences for less severe, yet still disruptive behaviors. This results in over-punishment of minor misdeeds, causing resentment and conflict out of proportion to the initial event. Research has shown that teachers who hold authoritarian, demanding attitudes towards students and student discipline are likely to experience excessive stress in the face of disruptive students (Forman, 1990).

Stress. Stress is defined as a state of extreme difficulty, pressure, or strain (American Heritage Dictionary, 1994). It is further defined as a subjective reaction to external conditions that are real, anticipated, or imagined, with the ability to cause physiological and/or psychological pain (Beck, 1997). Interactional theorists define stress

as "a dynamic amalgam of environmental events, person-mediating characteristics, and emotional/behavioral responses"(Zalaquett & Wood, 1997, p. 114).

Teacher stress is defined as a response of negative affect, which may be accompanied by physiological changes, resulting from aspects of the teacher's job and mediated by the perception that job demands are a threat (Kyriacou, 1987). Teacher stress was first identified as a problem by Hicks in the 1930's (Hicks, 1933), the study of which increased dramatically in the late 1970's (Fimian, 1985) and continues to be identified today as a problem for individual teachers, students, and the teaching profession (Forman, 1990). Estimating the extent of teacher stress can be difficult in that there are no widely accepted objective measures of stress or the stress reaction. Even studies attempting to measure observable factors such as heart rate increases while teaching and teacher absences are confounded by other issues pertaining to health and physical activity levels (Cains & Brown, 1998).

"Troubled students are experts at provoking and pushing the emotional buttons of concerned, dedicated, warmhearted teachers, who can end up feeling and behaving in hostile and rejecting ways with selected students"(Beck, 1997, p.38). Friedman (1995) cited several studies which also show a correlation between student discipline/behavior and teacher stress (Cichon & Koff, 1980; Kyriacou & Sutcliff, 1977; Hoerr & West, 1992). In a qualitative analysis of the sources of stress in teaching, Blase (1982) found that teachers perceive their students as the main source of burnout in their work due to indifference on the part of the student, discipline problems, unsatisfactory achievement, and absenteeism. In a more recent study involving levels of teacher stress, Cains and Brown (1998) also listed discipline and behavior problems as the primary source of teacher stress and burnout.

Burnout is defined as a process which begins with perceived stressors afflicting the individual(Friedman, 1995). It is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and sense of reduced personal accomplishment that can occur in individuals who are

employed in any type of 'people work' (Maslach & Jackson, 1986). "The consequences of burnout are potentially very dangerous for the staff, the clients, and the larger institutions in which they interact"(p. 1). Research has suggested that burnout can lead to deterioration in quality of care, job turnover, absenteeism, low morale, and personal health related problems (Maslach, 1981). Friedman (1995) also found that the primary sources of stress leading to burnout in teachers involved factors related to student-teacher interactions. Top among these factors were behavior and discipline problems. In an earlier study, Coates and Thoreson (1976) found that both new and experienced teachers were stressed over maintaining discipline (new teachers) and difficulties with students (experienced teachers).

With the requirements of PL94-142 specifying that students be educated in the least restrictive environment, teachers must adjust to the presence of difficult to teach children in regular classrooms in addition to the pressures to improve overall academic performance (Tompkins & Tompkins-McGill, 1993). Long and Morse (1996) pointed out that the teaching of emotionally disturbed children "saps the very core of teacher being and is a major contributor to professional fatigue. With rapidly spreading practices of inclusion, this stress is felt by all teachers"(p. 32).

In a discussion of teacher stress, some researchers distinguish between custodial-oriented teachers and humanistic-oriented teachers (Hoy & Miskel, 1982). Custodial-oriented teachers operate in rigid and highly controlled settings, in which maintenance of order is primary. Humanistic-oriented teachers emphasize democracy and two-way communication in the efforts to meet student needs. Friedman (1995) pointed out that custodial-oriented teachers often do not attempt to understand student behavior, and view misbehavior as a personal affront. He further noted that humanistic-oriented teachers tend to be put off most by disrespectful behaviors. His study has limited generalization to our discussion in that the 12 schools in his sample were primary schools in Israel. The main applicable point is that different teachers have different styles and will

be influenced or stressed by different student behaviors -- similar to the way that student perceptions of crises vary from individual to individual.

Several findings have been reported by Sharp and Forman (1985) and Forman (1990) regarding programs designed to reduce teacher stress. One facet they found effective was having teachers attend behavior modification skills training. Teacher levels of self-reported stress and anxiety were reportedly lower immediately following the training sessions, and at a four week follow-up. They also showed it to be effective to have teachers become more aware of their own irrational beliefs and their own emotions. It is this concept that is most applicable to our present discussion. Content of such programs included discussions of how emotions work, the identification of irrational beliefs, how these beliefs influence behavior, and anger management skills (Forman, 1990). The negative aspect of this study, and others like it, concern the fact that teachers are only taught how to modify and reduce stress through changing their own perceptions. The sources of stress -- namely, ineffective interaction styles with the students -- are still present (Long & Morse, 1996). The present study included aspects from these other studies (i.e. being aware of irrational beliefs and emotions), and also addressed reducing teacher stress by making them more effective at interacting with students. As Cains and Brown (1998) indicated, teacher stress levels are likely to persist and be more sapping of energy and morale when situations are not quickly resolved, but instead are escalated through ineffective teacher action.

"The negative effects of the dramatic and rapid social changes in our society and the reality that many students attending special classes, schools, and alternative programs have emotional needs which far exceed the resources of the setting and skills of the staff, have resulted in many dedicated staff often ending up feeling inadequate, helpless, and angry. They want an additional strategy that goes beyond managing surface behavior of these students"(Fecser & Long ,1996, p. ii). LSCI presents such a strategy -- in a time

when schools are beginning to realize that they can not 'make' a student do anything (Beck & Dolce-Maule, 1998).

Choice and coercion. The preceding statement is especially true when kids have lost interest in the school and school related factors. If a student hates being in school, and the school threatens misbehavior with suspension, this student will actually be rewarded (in his eyes) for misbehavior. This brings our discussion to a brief look at Choice Theory as defined by William Glasser (1981). Glasser stated that individuals are internally motivated and are responsible for the choices they make, and that those choices are purposeful and directed to meet individual needs (belonging, power, freedom, and fun). As long as the student feels that his needs are being met, he will continue with inappropriate behaviors (Beck, 1997).

So what happens when teachers or administrators try to force students to behave in certain ways? The ideas behind coercion theory are based on the reciprocal nature of human interactions. Patterson (1982) summarized that "the immediate effects of parents' attempts to stop the problem behaviors of their children through such actions as threats and scolding not only made the situation worse (in terms of persistence and escalation)....but also played a key role in establishing ongoing coercive family interactions" (p. 139). Nelson and Roberts (2000) reaffirmed that the least effective parenting style is authoritarian - defined earlier as being demanding without responding to the needs of the child. These parents attempt to change their child's behavior through coercion, manipulation, and punishment.

Although not as prominent in the research, these ideas have been applied to teacher-student interactions (Shores, Gunter, Denny, & Jack, 1993; Shores, Jack, Gunter, & Ellis, 1993). Nelson and Roberts (2000) conducted a descriptive study with emotionally and behaviorally disturbed students in a self-contained classroom. They demonstrated that the more negative a student acted, in terms of aggression and disruption, the more negatively teachers responded to them. In terms of the reciprocal

nature of relationships they found that a) "Teachers....tended to respond to the disruptive behaviors of target students with either a command or a reprimand," and b) "Target students...tended to respond to teachers' attempts to correct their behaviors with a negative response"(p. 34).

For children labeled emotionally or behaviorally disordered, control is a central part of schooling. These children are said to lack internal means of controlling their behavior, so schools respond by trying to control it for them (Knitzer, Steinberg, & Fleisch, 1990). "Too often the dominant curriculum is not the traditional academic curriculum, nor is it about concepts, thinking, and problem solving. Instead the curriculum is about controlling the behaviors of the children"(p. 82). Rewards are based on the ability to stay quiet and follow directions as opposed to academics and creativity. Behavioral point systems alone do not teach children how to better manage their anger, sadness, or impulses (Redl, 1957).

Several researchers have looked at the relationship between perceptions of control and behavior. Long and Morse (1996) described laboratory studies on the relation between hostility and defiance and perceptions of control over events. It was indicated that the less control a person had over objective events, the more satisfaction they drew from destructive acts. For students experiencing little academic success, the feeling of lack of control is prominent. These students are compelled to create success elsewhere. They take pride in their defiance, rebellion, and destruction as to them, these incidents are examples of being in control. Deci, Nizlek, and Sheinman (1981) reported a correlation between teachers' attitudes towards control versus autonomy and children's feelings about the climate of their classroom. Teachers who encouraged autonomy in the classroom had students who were enthusiastic and proud of their classrooms. It was further correlated that students who had positive impressions of their classroom climate had greater levels of intrinsic motivation and higher levels of self-esteem.

Punishment. Emile Durkheim (1972) stated that "whatever the intellectual rationale, punishment is first and foremost an instinctive emotional reaction to threat. All humans respond defensively to perceived danger, and punishment is a way of attacking what seems a threat" (p. 53). Punishment is defined by behaviorists as the administration of an event, immediately following a behavior, which is designed to decrease the frequency of that behavior (Miller, 1997). The crucial part of this definition is 'designed to decrease the frequency' of a particular behavior. People generally see punishment as primarily something unpleasant or undesirable. In this sense, being sent to the office or suspended from school could be seen as a punishment -- for most people. However, for the child trying desperately to get out of class or school, the same consequence is a reward. Fecser and Long (1996) acknowledged this aspect in their assertion that punishment and/or exclusion "drives these youth further from the social bond, and makes them resistant to traditional counseling strategies. Increasingly cut off from supportive mentors and prosocial peers, the young person gravitates to other alienated youths who share a hatred of adult authority and institutions. These youth may retreat in lonely isolation or explode in violent acts"(p. 2).

It is currently common practice to take a reactive approach as opposed to a proactive approach. Generally, schools wait until a student's behavior has escalated to the point of being out of control, then respond with punishment or exclusion. This reactive climate requires some degree of inappropriate behavior before resources are focused on behavioral redirection (Tompkins & Tompkins-McGill, 1993). In their book, Long and Morse (1996) presented strategies to "help students learn replacement behavior and cease to depend only on verbal admonitions and punishment"(p. 69).

Now the question becomes, where do we go from here? Student discipline problems are a major concern for teachers. Teachers seem to lack sufficient training and skills to effectively deal with these students. This can cause increased levels of stress for

teachers which further negatively impacts their students. What do we need to do to create the environment where personal growth can occur out of a crisis situation?

The need for caring relationships. Carl Rogers (1951) maintained that learning does not rest upon expertise, teaching skills, or use of innovative materials. He asserted that in order for learning to occur, there must be a certain relationship between the teacher and the learner. Without it, all teaching efforts are basically useless. Similarly, and more recently, the authors of *Early Warning, Timely Response*, affirmed that "educators and families can increase their ability to recognize early warning signs [of violence] by establishing close, caring, and supportive relationships with children and youth -- getting to know them well enough to be aware of their needs, feelings, attitudes, and behavior patterns"(p. 6-7). There are two qualities which are essential to these relationships (Long & Morse, 1996). The first is empathy, or the ability to see an event from each individual's perspective. This is an essential part of being able to see beyond the surface behavior and begin to understand the affective states which may be influencing behavior. The second basic quality is caring. Children will often use planned inappropriate behaviors to test the adult before feeling safe enough to form a relationship. Children from troubled backgrounds have been raised with the idea that adults don't care. When an adult tries to form a relationship with them, the child may think 'oh, you're just doing your job, you don't really care.' The child must be convinced that the adult truly cares about the situation. Authenticity and genuineness are essential to any productive relationship (Ivey, 1999).

"The outcome of empathy and caring is the awakening of a trusting relationship, a condition of being open with another human being without fear of being hurt"(Long & Morse, 1996, p. 70). Once this relationship is formed, the team can proceed to work on problems and explore new means of achieving goals. Redl and Wineman (1959) summarized: "The fact is, the youngsters not only respond to what we say or put in writing; they smell our value-feelings even when we don't notice our own body odor any

more. I am not sure how, and I can't wait until I find out....Does the arrangement of my furniture call me a liar while I make a speech about how much at home I want them to feel, or does that gleam in a counselor's eye tell the child: 'You are still wanted', even though he means it if he says he won't let you cut up the table cloth"(p. 102).

In a sophisticated study led by Gold and Osgood (1992) of the University of Michigan's Institute of Social Research, over 300 youth who had been committed to public and private treatment facilities were followed longitudinally for ten years. This study found that successful programs were ones that combined addressing youth developmental needs with addressing societal needs to stop destructive behavior. Most success was seen with programs based on authoritative approaches as opposed to authoritarian approaches. This empirical data should be used to dispel the myth that the harsher the institutional experience, the greater the deterrent effect. "Troubled youth need safe, positive environments in which they can create corrective social bonds with caring adults and peers"(Brendtro & Long, 1994, p. 7). The more troubled a child is, the more important the need for close personal attachments in order to reconstruct their lives.

Once a caring relationship is established, the adult can work on improving a child's skills. Even without therapy or counseling backgrounds, adults can model talking out instead of acting out. Children need to be taught and exposed to using words calmly and appropriately (Dwyer, 1999). By listening and commenting on observable behavior instead of lecturing or associating our own meanings to a child's behavior we are helping children learn how to do this themselves. It is very common in our society to respond to a child's statement such as, "I'm angry" or "I'm scared" with the response "Don't be angry (scared)" This discounting of a child's feelings has negative effects. We want our children to verbalize their feelings. With repeated experiences the child becomes confused about feelings, and tries to suppress them. A more effective response may be "It's OK to be angry (scared)" By acknowledging feelings within a caring relationship, the adult and

child can work together on expressing or dealing appropriately with these feelings (Dwyer, 1999).

The process of change begins with someone who cares. In this way, relationships act as catalysts, challenging people to change (US Dept. of Ed, 1998). If we continue to use threats and coercion, with the belief that adults are always right, we will continue to destroy relationships with children (Beck & Dolce-Maule, 1998). Everyone has a personal responsibility for reducing the risk of violence. "We must take steps to maintain order, demonstrate mutual respect and caring for one another, and ensure that children who are troubled get the help they need"(US Dept. of Ed., 1998, p. 2). "By implementing comprehensive programs that improve overall school climate and reduce minor disruption, schools may also be reducing the risk of more serious violent incidents that appear to be associated with higher levels of minor disruption. Such data support the argument that the problem of violence in our schools is related to a breakdown in civility."(Dwyer, Osher, & Hoffman, 2000, p. 336.)

History of Life Space Crisis Intervention. The name Life Space Crisis Intervention (LSCI) was derived from Fritz Redl's original technique of Life Space Interviewing (LSI) which he developed with David Wineman in 1957. Redl and Wineman took youth who were deemed unreachable due to their level of antisocial behaviors, brought them together under one roof, and successfully worked with them using these techniques. "LSI was originally based on sophisticated clinical skills which reflected the personality of the interviewer rather than theory and concepts. It was difficult to teach systematically, yet, held so much appeal that people attempted to use it anyway"(Fecser & Long, 1996, p.12).

In 1991 Wood and Long co-authored a book which attempted to outline a specific structure for teaching these techniques. The name was changed to LSCI to reflect the technique's applicability to more than the clinical setting. In the same year, Long, in collaboration with Frank Fecser, developed a certified program in LSCI creating

professional structure and standards. They outlined 26 specific competencies to aid in the systematic learning of this process for future training. LSCI is compatible with behavior modification and social learning theory as part of a 'tool bag' for behavior management. Used to interfere with inappropriate behavior and to encourage more acceptable modes of thinking and behaving, it can be used with rather than instead of other techniques, broadening approaches to increase effectiveness (Tompkins & Tompkins-McGill, 1993).

Instead of responding directly to student behavior, LSCI helps teachers and students take an in-depth look at the thoughts and feelings which influence behavior (Fecser & Long, 1996). Negative interactions (crises) are framed in terms of the Conflict Cycle (Wood & Long, 1991), and ways to break or escape from this cycle are addressed. The conflict cycle creates a visual representation of the cyclic nature of interactions between one person's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors, and another person's reactions to them (see Appendix A). As Beck and Dolce-Maule (1998) summarized, "as long as we continue to engage students in power struggles, and feel that we have to win at all costs, we will continue to destroy relationships"(p. 26). The initial focus of LSCI is on understanding the reasons for counterproductive conflict cycles. This entails a non-judgmental discussion and analysis of the crisis situation -- very similar to how a football coach and his team review game tapes in the effort to improve performance for next time.

LSCI purports to be more than a way of talking to children in youth in crisis. It claims to be a way of "understanding the dynamics of thought and feeling underlying behavior, and the emotional interplay between the student and others in his life"(Fecser & Long, 1996, p.3). Fecser and Long asserted that teachers can often de-escalate a conflict by acknowledging that the student's feelings are real (even if they are based on irrational beliefs, the kid is still feeling sad, upset, frustrated, etc.), and focusing on refraining from arguing with the student. The use of teacher authority and/or threats of consequences is both ineffective and a way to escalate the conflict (Fecser & Long, 1996). As Beck

(1997) stated, "if we want to be successful with students and develop a quality school program, we need to be aware of our verbal interactions with students. In particular we need to avoid getting caught in power struggles" (p. 37).

Stages of LSCI. The following section provides a BRIEF overview of the six stages of the Life Space Crisis Intervention technique. The first three stages provide the framework for de-escalating conflict and dealing with the immediate situation. The last three stages focus on providing students with the insight necessary to foster behavior changes. In stage one the child is in crisis. Using the conflict cycle as a foundation, the adult recognizes and addresses the student's feelings while remaining neutral and non-judgmental. In many cases this action alone will be sufficient so that the student can remain in class.

In stage two, the staff listens to the student's side of the story, and attempts to create a timeline of events leading up to the crisis. This step involves the basic counseling skills of active listening, attending, reflecting, and summarizing. The staff makes note of the student's body language. After hearing the student's side, the staff member gives his or her own perceptions of the situation -- not contradicting the student, just stating how they may have seen the same situation. In stage three, the staff and the student work together to analyze the information they now have. The differences in perspectives (if any) are discussed, and a plan for what needs to happen next is assembled.

In order to progress through stages four, five, and six, the student must be willing to start making changes. The adult can not force this situation to occur, but can plant the seeds of insight and wait for them to grow. Generally, if the student typically exhibits inappropriate responses to crises, the staff will have several opportunities to intervene with stages one through three. The staff helps the student see patterns in behavior, and provides the opportunity to try new skills. In order to be successful in attempting new behaviors, the student will need a support system ready to encourage his efforts and

reward successive approximations of the new skills. For this reason, LSCI is most effective when the entire educational team is aware of and involved with its progressions.

Research trends. In 1965, Patricia Tompkins described, assessed, and evaluated a year-long in-service training program that taught LSI and Fritz Redl's other techniques of establishing a therapeutic milieu to public school teachers. According to her study, teachers saw it as a valuable tool to increase their effectiveness in handling behavior problems with fewer punitive methods. Teachers also reported reduced perceptions of stress and increased self confidence in dealing with troubled children. The majority of prior research into the techniques of LSI are similar to this study. Positive results are cited, but there is little convincing evidence (See Tompkins & Tompkins-McGill for descriptions of DeMagistris & Imber, 1980; Reilly, et al., 1978; Naslund, 1987). Qualitatively speaking, the techniques are alleged to work effectively, but there is little quantitative support. Wood and Long (1991) traced the history of the field validation of LSI over the past 40 years, noting its successful use in numerous situations including public school classrooms. However, they acknowledged that there was little in the way of controlled environments or experimentally oriented research.

Morse and Small (1959), conducted a study of a LSI during a seven week camp for 90 emotionally disturbed boys. Although the authors state that their study showed the positive effects of LSI, they were limited by lack of a research design, limited time periods, and little objective data. It is unknown if LSI influenced the positive behavior change, or if it was influenced by other factors. For example, during the LSI process the boys were informed that if problems were not resolved, they would have to leave the camp. All the boys were reported to like the camp and the camp experience, so the possibility of this confounding the data is rather strong.

In 1961, Long, Stroeffler, Krause, and Jung studied the effects of using LSI on six boys who had been in residential treatment for five years due to antisocial and aggressive behavior. In their study the boys had been informed of impending discharge from the

program, and subsequently began displaying escalated acting-out behaviors. The boys were then restricted from the normal daily routine, and subjected to extensive LSI sessions for five days. The authors stated that the LSI sessions had positive effects in causing behaviors to return to acceptable levels. Again, several limitations were noted by critics. First and foremost was the lack of research design, and the short time frame investigated. As important were the unknown effects of contaminating variables. For example, maybe it was the removal from daily routine and increased staff attention that effected behavior, and not simply the LSI techniques (Gardner, 1990).

The most recent study was conducted by Naslund (1987). She studied 28 emotionally disturbed boys at the Rose School in Washington, DC The Rose School was established by Dr. Long, and LSI techniques are used extensively. Naslund stated that 13 of the 38 boys decreased their need for crisis intervention after LSI was consistently used in their treatment. Critics claim that Naslund failed to report that 14 of the students actually increased acting out, and 1 student showed no change (Gardner, 1990). Again, lack of a research design was cited as a shortcoming, as was lack of empirical data.

Naslund maintained that her study showed positive effects. She quoted qualitative differences in the nature of LSI's conducted. For example, although the boys still needed intervention to resolve their conflicts, the interventions focused on ways to talk things out as opposed to the need for intervention to stop a physical altercation. She further asserted that the boys used the LSI's with staff to enhance their development of new skills, as opposed to the need to be introduced to the new skills. Again, this is hard to justify without empirical support.

Advantages and limitations of LSCI. Proponents of LSCI claim that the techniques have many advantages. It enables students to express feelings in a nonjudgmental environment. It helps students learn how to use problem solving skills. The technique is readily available for use in most crisis situations. It helps teachers and students identify those feelings that cause acting out behaviors. It teaches students to

make changes in their behaviors, and finally, there are benefits of having the problem solving process occur temporally close to the initial crisis situation (Gardner, 1990).

The most common criticisms of LSCI, as alluded to, concern the lack of empirical data. Most of the previous research has focused on anecdotal documentation as opposed to research designs. Other areas of concern do exist. One of the biggest teacher concerns is availability of time. Teachers "will tell you they are under increasing pressure to improve the academic scores of their class...the emotional strain for classroom teachers to find more time for instruction is real"(Long, 1990, p. 7). When shown the LSCI process, many teachers state that they do not have extra class time to devote to extensive processing with one student. Proponents, however, state that the time spent in the interventions are well worth it in the end. If students are not emotionally ready to learn, the time spent in academic instruction is wasted anyway. If students can be taught more appropriate behaviors, teachers would be able to spend more time on instruction than on classroom management. Also, as Long, Fecser, and Brendtro (2000) pointed out, the majority of LSCI interventions will take five minutes or less. For the most part, if students get the perception that someone understands where they are coming from, it is possible to de-escalate a crisis, and if prolonged discussion is needed, it can be scheduled at a time convenient for both parties (Tompkins, & Tompkins-McGill, 1993).

Ralph Gardner (1990) published an article of LSCI criticisms. One of the points he made is that focusing on feelings takes responsibility away from the actions. He felt that if students are continually exposed to the LSCI language, they will know what to say to avoid taking responsibility. He gave an example of a student who was confronted for pushing a peer down the stairs. The student, having been exposed to LSCI in the past, told the teacher that when Billy called him a dummy, it made him mad and frustrated because he had been recently embarrassed in math class when he didn't get the answer to a simple problem. He knew pushing Billy was wrong, and in the future he would use words to tell Billy how he was feeling. Gardner's example ends here -- the student was

seemingly exonerated from inappropriate behavior by falling into the LSCI focus on feelings behind behaviors. However, Hewitt (2000) stated that when using LSCI, the final step is to deal with the inappropriate behavior. She asserted that by engaging in this process, the child is aware that he acted inappropriately, and will most likely be able to tell the adult what the consequence for the misbehavior should be. This part is done in a nonjudgmental, blame-free manner. For example stating, "Johnny, I know you were upset when you pushed Billy, but you did push him. In our school, putting hands on another student has its consequences. Can you tell me what they are?" The step in the LSCI process of constructing a timeline is very useful here. Most students will tell you exactly what they did, and the consequences are tied to this reconstructed account.

LSCI does have limitations with certain populations. Young, nonverbal children, or those children with limited understanding of verbal stimuli will have difficulty using LSCI techniques (Morse, 1996). Additionally, children under the age of 6, or children who are mentally retarded may lack the necessary abilities for abstract thinking as well as the ability to connect feelings with behaviors (Morse, 1996). Several prerequisite child skills are required. These skills include an adequate attention span, the ability to listen and retain information, spontaneous language, the ability to understand cause and effect relationships (action/reaction), the ability to sequence events in time, and the presence of a trusting relationship with an adult (Wood & Long, 1991).

Summary. This literature review presented information suggesting that the current state of affairs in some school systems are not conducive to effective learning. Teacher student conflict is occurring at rates more extreme than ever before. Teachers are unprepared to effectively deal with these situations, which results in increased teacher stress and burnout. When teachers are stressed, the students and the school system in general are negatively impacted. Typically, in order to deal with student crises and conflict, the school system relies on punishment-based methods, ultimately ending in

exclusion (suspension or expulsion). These methods tend to ignore the emotional aspects of such crises, and thus tend to be ineffective for large numbers of students.

The technique known as Life Space Crisis Intervention purports to provide a more humanistic, cognitively based method of dealing with student crisis. By acknowledging student and teacher emotions, recognizing the counterproductivity of power struggles, and providing strategies to remain neutral and non-judgmental in the face of a crisis, this technique alleges to produce environments conducive to positive behavioral change. Although this technique has existed since 1960, there is little research which quantitatively validates its use -- there is however plenty of qualitative reports from those that have successfully utilized LSCI.

This current research study provides quantitative data based on the information presented in this literature review. It is hypothesized that if teachers are trained in the use of LSCI, they will report lower levels of stress on a self-report measure, and will have fewer students requiring time out room referrals.

Method

Hypothesis. Training teachers in Life Space Crisis Intervention techniques will produce a decrease in the level of stress reported by teachers on the Teacher Stress Inventory (Fimian, 1988) as well as a decrease in the number and severity of time out referrals.

Participants. The participants in this study were a sample of staff members from a central New York self-contained, special education facility. This facility serves middle and high school students from ten area school districts, each of which, in conjunction with New York State, provide funding for this program. The student population consists of those students who are unable to receive their education in their home district due to significant behavioral, emotional, and/or physical disabilities.

The sample included 34 staff members (Appendix B illustrates the different demographic breakdowns of participants): 12 teachers, 10 teacher's aides, and 12 staff

designated as "other" (crisis counselors, librarian, social workers). Of these 34 employees, 27 were female and 7 were male. The age range of participants approximated a normal distribution, with the majority of participants in the range of 31-50 years old. Two participants were in their first year working with children in any capacity, and eight were in their first year at this particular program. The experience of other participants ranged from 2-16 years at this particular program, and 4-30 years working with children in some capacity.

This program was chosen due to an administrative mandate that staff would attend a minimum of two days of Life Space Crisis Intervention training, which occurred in June 2001 (42 total staff members attended). A voluntary three day follow-up training to provide more details and practice was offered in August 2001 (14 total staff members attended). Within this study's sample of 34, 16 staff attended only the two day training, and 7 staff attended all five days. Subsequently, a group of 11 staff attended none of the training. [Within the group that attended all five days of training, 5 were teachers, 1 was a teacher's aide, and 1 was designated "other". Within the group that attended two days of training, 5 were teachers, 9 were teacher's aides, and 2 were designated "other" Within the group that attended none of the training, 2 were teachers, and 9 were designated "other".] Because staff were mandated by administration to attend some of the training sessions, randomization of groups was not possible.

Instrumentation - Variables

The Teacher Stress Inventory. The first dependent variable measured was level of teacher stress. This was measured using the Teacher Stress Inventory (Fimian, 1988). A sample inventory is included in Appendix C. This measure was specifically designed to assess the degree of occupational stress experienced by American teachers (11th Mental Measurements Yearbook, 1992). It is an anonymously completed self-rating scale consisting of 49 items to which the teacher responds using a 1 to 5 rating format. The completion time was approximately 10-15 minutes. The 49 items are grouped into ten

factors or subscales, five of which measure sources of stress, and five of which measure manifestations of stress. The items are included on a four page protocol labeled "Teacher Concerns Inventory," to avoid sensitizing teachers to their beliefs and attitudes about stress. (11th Mental Measurements Yearbook, 1992). "The TSI is the primary instrument for assessing occupational stress in this population and has no specific competitor. Considerable effort has been expended in developing the TSI and the author presents reasonable psychometric data."(Poteat, 1992, p. 917). Content validity, internal consistency, construct validity, and criterion-related validity were all been deemed adequate by test reviewers (Poteat, 1992; Stoddard, 1992; Wiese, 1992). Table 1 portrays reliability estimates for each of the TSI factors as well as the TSI total. "In sum, the TSI is a potentially valuable instrument for use in public school settings to assess teacher stress."(Wiese, 1992, p.919).

Table 1

TSI Factors and Reliability Estimates

TSI Scales and Factors	Alpha Reliability	Test-Retest (2 weeks)	Test-Retest (8 weeks)
Stress Sources			
Time-management	0.83	0.81	0.65
Work-related stressors	0.8	0.87	0.49
Professional distress	0.82	0.93	0.84
Discipline/motivation	0.86	0.9	0.58
Professional investment	0.75	0.93	0.83
Stress Manifestations			
Emotional	0.87	0.97	0.48
Fatigue	0.82	0.99	0.69
Cardiovascular	0.78	0.97	0.8
Gastronomic	0.88	0.96	0.58
Behavioral	0.82	0.95	0.61
Total Stress	0.93	0.99	0.76

Poteat (1992) and Stoddard (1992) acknowledged that a weakness with the TSI was that norms were based primarily on special educators (N=2352 out of 3401 respondents), and recommended that users of the TSI develop their own system-wide

norms. In this study however, the TSI norm sample was not utilized as a basis for comparison. Instead, participant scores were compared across time in terms of pre and post intervention periods.

Time-out room referrals. The second dependent variable to be measured was the number and severity of time-out room referrals. While valid and reliable procedures such as time-sampling and direct observation have been utilized to obtain information on student behaviors, these procedures are intensive and time consuming, and therefore not feasible for monitoring behavior patterns at a building wide level. However, most districts have procedures already established for monitoring student misbehavior, in the form of office discipline referrals. (Wright & Dusek, 1998). This pre-existing data source represents an unobtrusive, archival measure of student behaviors in which compilation is unlikely to result in reactivity effects (changes in behavior in reaction to observation) of either referring teachers or referred students. (Sechrest & Phillips, 1979).

Time-out referrals can, however, be an atypical metric. Similar student behaviors may evoke different responses across different classrooms and teachers. (Sugai, Sprague, Horner, & Walker, 2000). Although application of this process may also differ across schools, the reports are often collected in similar formats, including teacher name, student name, date, location, classification of the misbehavior, and consequence. (Wright & Dusek, 1998). Time-out data was collected and analyzed for the pre and post intervention measures. Specific data periods consisted of October, November, and December of 2000 (pre-intervention); October, November, and December of 2001 (post-intervention); and January, February, and March 2002 (post-intervention/follow-up).

Two experimental confounds/limitations were involved with this metric. First, beginning in the 2001 school year, an administrative mandate was issued, which basically stated that staff were to rely on their LSCI training and strive to limit the number of referrals out of class to the time out room. The subsequent statistical significance of the data must be interpreted in light of this mandate. Second, the number of staff included in

this statistical analysis is rather low [N=10] as the time out referral data is categorized by teacher only (as opposed to aides or other staff).

Time-out room referral documentation was utilized to obtain measures of total number of time-outs, average minutes spent in time out, and average severity of time outs. For each teacher involved with this study, *total number of time out incidents* was simply recorded. Every referral form submitted by teachers provided information on how long a particular student remained in time out. In order to calculate *average minutes spent in time out*, total number of minutes was divided by the number of incidents. Every referral form submitted also provided an indication of the severity of the time out. This was rated on a scale of one to five, with one indicating mild and five indicating severe. Mild and severe refer to the degree of behavior escalation exhibited by the child and response to intervention (ability to be de-escalated). For each teacher, *time out severity* was calculated by summing the severity scores and dividing by the number of incidents.

Independent variables. The number of training sessions attended by teachers was the independent variable. As described in the participant section, program staff were mandated by administration to attend two days of LSCI training offered at the end of June 2001. There were however, a number of staff members that did not attend. At the end of August 2001, a second three day session was provided on a voluntary basis for those who wanted more in depth information and skills practice. Three groups were thus created. The hypothesis was expanded to predict that those staff members who attended all five days will have lower stress levels than those who attended only two days or no days. Also, those teachers who attended all five days are predicted to be involved in fewer time out room referrals than those who attended two days or no days of training.

Procedures

Prior to initiating the study, this writer collaborated with the agency responsible for providing Life Space Crisis Intervention training. This agency indicated that there was a facility wherein a large number of staff members were expected to attend an LSCI

training. This writer then established contact with the facility administrator, described the intent of this study, and received consent to recruit staff for voluntary participation. A building wide memo announced an opportunity to be involved with a project investigating teacher concerns. The requirements (four sessions), as well as the voluntary nature, confidentiality of information, and right to withdraw at any point were addressed. In addition, a cash raffle for those who participated in all four sessions was offered. The above mentioned letters and memos are included in Appendix D.

At the initial data collection meeting (April 2001) the procedures, including confidentiality and the right to withdraw at any point were again discussed with participants. Consent forms were distributed, signed, and collected. At this point, participants were assigned a study ID number to ensure anonymity. Demographic information (see Appendix B) was then collected (gender, age, position, and years in position). Participants were given the first administration of the Teacher Stress Inventory. The directions for completing the inventory were explained and this writer was available for questions. Participants were expected to read each of 49 statements, then circle a number (1-5) which best represented how much each statement was true or noticeable to them. The second data collection occurred in early June 2001. Participants were notified via a program wide memo a few weeks before the actual data collection. Due to questions raised at the initial collection date, participants were also asked to answer the following questions: a) years in current position, b) years working with children, and c) whether or not they had their own kids. Again, directions for completion were reviewed with participants. The training sessions were offered at the end of June 2001, with the three day follow up sessions in August 2001. Prior to the third and fourth data collection dates, participants were again reminded via program-wide memos. The third collection date occurred in November 2001, and the final data collection in April 2002. Archival and updated time out room referral data was collected on an ongoing basis via computer downloads.

Once all of the data was collected, it was entered into SPSS for analysis. A split-plot factorial design was utilized (see Table 2). This enabled between-group and within-group comparisons, in that the effects of the intervention as well as how the effects changed over time, could be explored. Average levels of stress were calculated for each individual, for each position, and for each training group. SPSS enabled the calculation of correlation within and between groups, mean comparison, and significant differences.

Table 2

Split Plot Factorial Design Breakdown

	Teachers	Aides	Others	Total
Attended no training	N=2	N=0	N=9	N=11
Attended two days of training	N=5	N=9	N=2	N=16
Attended five days of training	N=5	N=1	N=1	N=7
Total	N=12	N=10	N=12	N=34

Results

Levels of stress. As described earlier, levels of teacher stress were collected using responses to the TSI. The TSI manual indicated procedures for summing questionnaire responses in terms of the ten factors mentioned earlier [Appendix C includes a TSI form with the scoring guide]. From this, a total TSI total stress score, with a minimum value of 1.00 and a maximum value of 5.00, was calculated for each individual (see Appendix E for TSI total score distributions). Scores were entered into SPSS enabling the calculation of mean stress levels for any grouping of individuals. Before considering stress levels as a function of training attendance, stress levels in general were explored (see Figure 1). Results indicated that mean stress levels, regardless of position or training attendance,

increased from the first data collection (mean score 2.51) to the second (mean score 2.59). After the second data collection, participants were exposed to the intervention. An overall decrease in level of stress from the second (2.59) to the third data collection (mean score 2.57) was noted. However, scores did not decrease to a level lower than scores reported in the first data collection. At the final data collection, overall stress scores showed an increase (mean score 2.66). Table 3 depicts mean TSI total stress scores for the total group, mean TSI total stress scores based on number of days of training attended, and the analysis of variance (ANOVA) results for stress totals by training attended.

Table 3

Mean TSI Total Scores for all Groups, with ANOVA Significance Values

Grouping	N	Mean	Sig.
TSI 1			
Five days of training	7	2.32	
Two days of training	16	2.55	
No training	11	2.57	
Total	34	2.51	0.532
TSI 2			
Five days of training	6	2.4	
Two days of training	14	2.68	
No training	9	2.58	
Total	29	2.59	0.584
TSI 3			
Five days of training	6	2.58	
Two days of training	11	2.47	
No training	9	2.68	
Total	26	2.57	0.623
TSI 4			
Five days of training	6	2.66	
Two days of training	9	2.61	
No training	6	2.75	
Total	21	2.66	0.892

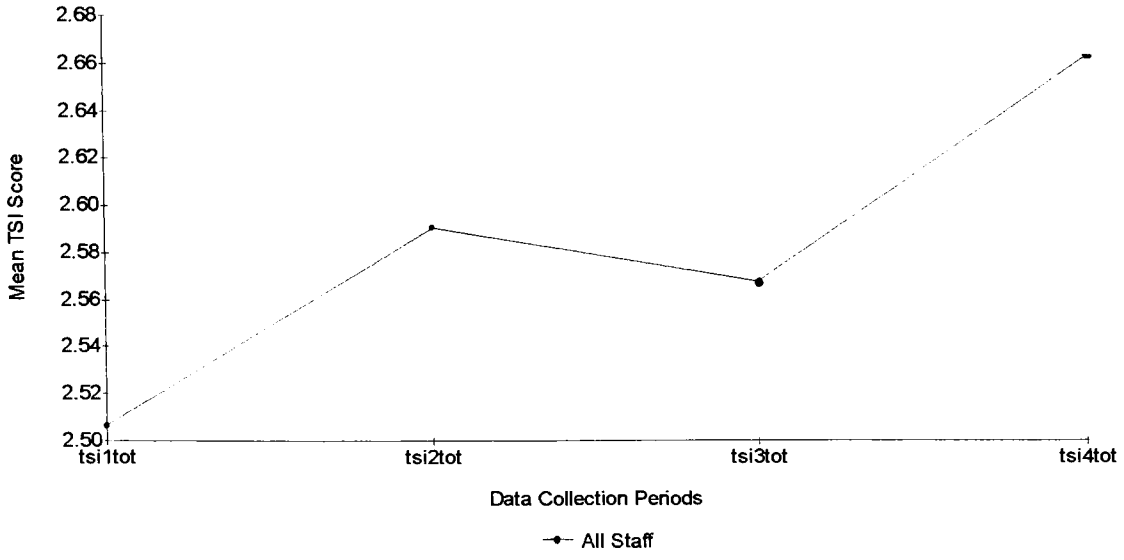

Figure 1. Mean TSI total scores for all participants, regardless of amount of training attended.

Mean stress levels were then explored based on the amount of training attended -- either all five days, two days only, or no training attended (see Figure 2). Interestingly enough, the only group to show a decrease in levels of stress was the staff that attended two days of training. At the first data collection, these individuals as a group reported a mean stress score of 2.55. Their scores increased to 2.68 by the second data collection. Following exposure to the intervention, those that attended two days of training showed an overall decrease in mean stress scores to 2.47 (the lowest mean stress score reported post intervention). This group did report an increase at the fourth data collection (mean score 2.61), however, levels did not exceed the highest reported scores of the pre-intervention period. As noted by Table 3, none of these results were statistically significant.

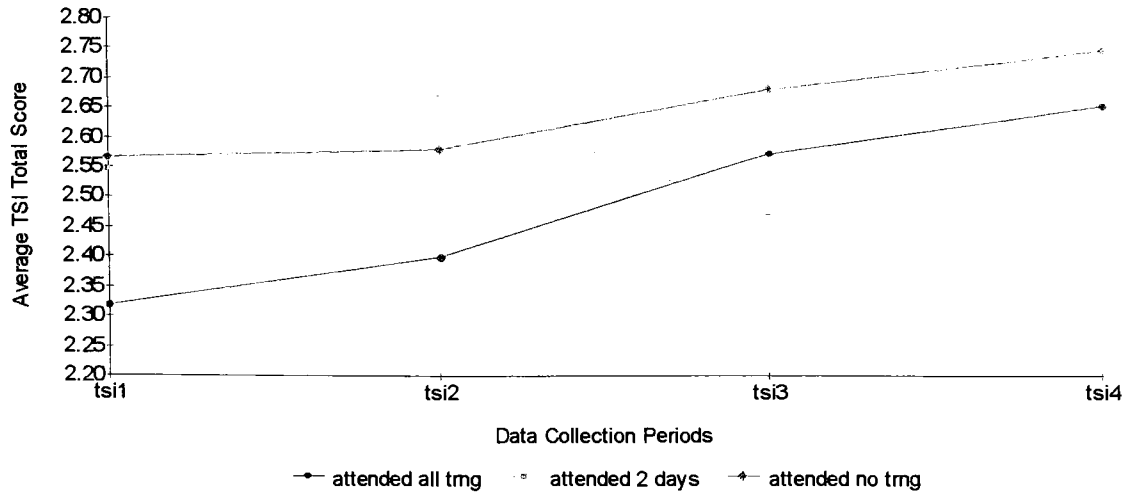

Figure 2. Mean TSI totals for all participants by amount of training days attended.

This group was the only group to report lower post-intervention average stress scores (2.57) than pre-intervention average stress scores (2.60). As depicted by Figure 2, all other groups showed steady increases in average stress levels over time.

In looking solely at average scores reported by teachers (see Figure 3), it was noted that after an initial increase between the first and second data collection periods, those that attended none of the training sessions showed fairly steady [elevated] mean stress levels (2.72, 2.83, 2.83, and 2.84). Those that attended two days of training showed a similar pattern to that described above -- scores increased from first to second, then decreased following the intervention period, and finally increased (exceeding previously reported levels) by the final data collection period (2.49, 2.64, 2.43, 2.69). Those teachers that attended all five days of training showed increases in average stress levels over time, with the greatest increase occurring immediately following the intervention period (2.20, 2.26, 2.53, 2.58).

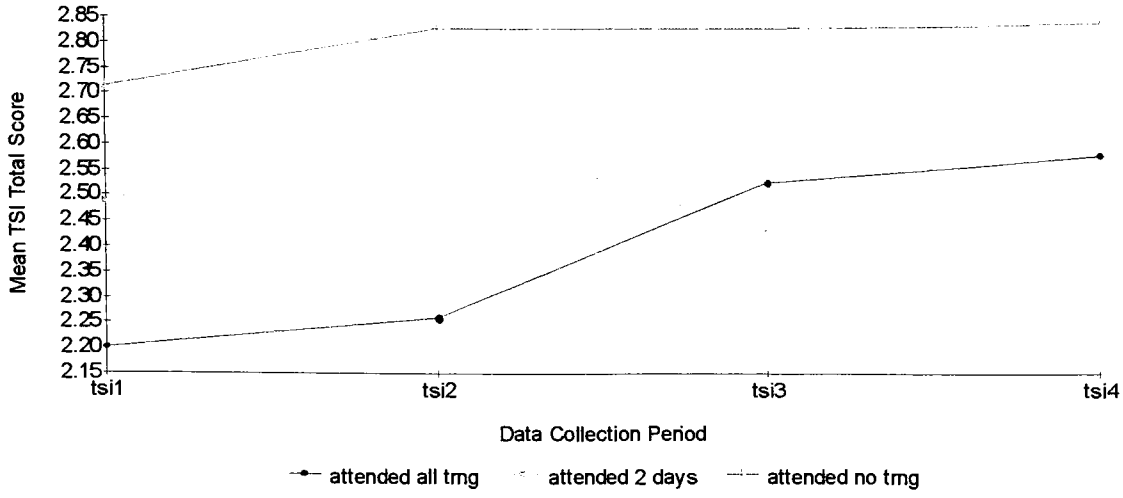

Figure 3. Mean TSI total scores for teachers by the number of training days attended.

In all data considerations for all groups, an increase was shown between the first data collection and the fourth data collection, as well as between the third data collection and the fourth data collection. It should be pointed out however, that regardless of training sessions attended, the average level of stress reported at the final data collection was mean = 2.66. Keeping this number in mind, we can then look at average levels of stress reported by staff members at the final data collection in terms of how much training they attended. Those that attended no training reported an average level of 2.75 (above the whole group's average). Those that attended two days of training reported an average level of 2.61 (below the whole group's average); and those that attended all five days of training reported an average level of 2.66 (equal to the whole group average). Statistically, these data were not significant (refer to Table 3).

Time-out referrals. In looking solely at the number of time out incidents occurring, without regard for the amount of training attended by staff, a statistically significant decrease is noted (see Tables 4 and 5).

Table 4

Time Out Incident Scores

Month/Year	Pre-Intervention	Post-Intervention
October 2000/2001	28.7	5.2
November 2000/2001	31.9	8.1
December 2000/2001	26.7	8.9
January 2002	-	2.9
February 2002		10.6
March 2002		13.3

Table 5

Pre- and Post- Intervention Paired Sample T-Test Results for Number of Time-Out Incidents

Time Period	Lower Value	Upper Value	Sig. (2-tailed)
Oct 2000 / Oct 2001	8.44	38.56	0.006
Nov 2000 / Nov 2001	9.82	37.78	0.004
Dec 2000 / Dec 2001	9.28	26.32	0.001

In the following section, the average number of time out incidents is reported based on the number of training sessions attended. A similar drastic decrease in average number of time out incidents is noted for all groups beginning in the 2001 school year. However, as Figure 4 indicates, those who attended all five training days [N=5] had the fewest average time out incidents when compared to those who attended two days of training [N=4]. Although numbers for "attended no training" are included in Figure 4, the number of participants included in this group is too small [N=1] for reliable analyses.

As described in the Procedures section, data on average minutes spent in time out as well as average severity of time outs was also collected and analyzed. Although the number of actual incidents of time out decreased, for those students that were referred to

time out, the average minutes spent in the time out increased during the post intervention period. These numbers were not statistically significant (see Tables 6 and 7).

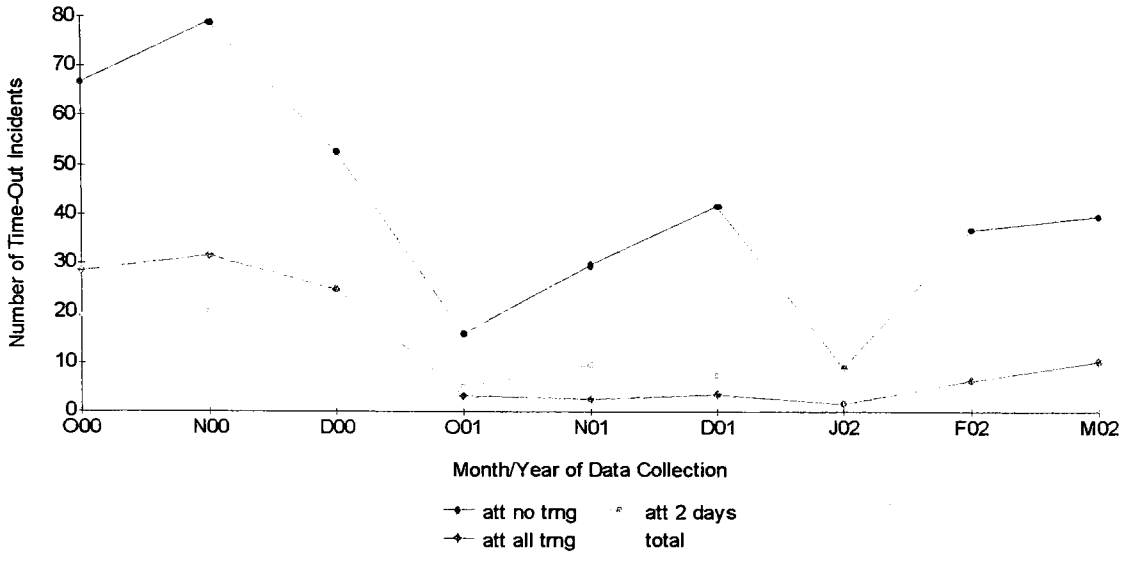

Figure 4. Number of time-out incidents over time based on amount of training attended by teachers.

Table 6

Average Minutes in Time Out

Total Training	Oct. 2000	Nov. 2000	Dec. 2000	Oct. 2001	Nov. 2001	Dec. 2001	Jan. 2002	Feb. 2002	Mar. 2002
5 Days	25.6	30.2	23.7	101.8	66.4	26.4	41.8	32.9	45.6
2 Days	31.2	28.9	24.7	41.6	36.2	51.4	27.4	39.9	49.2
No Days	27.4	31.7	23.8	35.9	38.3	24.6	39.1	26.1	38.8
Total	28	29.8	24.1	55.2	44.3	34.1	38.4	35	46.4

Table 7

Pre- and Post-Intervention Paired Sample T-Test Results for Average Number of Minutes Spent in Time-Out

Time Period	Sig. (2-tailed)
Oct 2000 / Oct 2001	0.199
Nov 2000 / Nov 2001	0.365
Dec 2000 / Dec 2001	0.514

A similar pattern exists for the data on average time out severity, with an increase (in certain cases statistically significant increases) noted for the post-intervention and follow-up period (see Tables 8 and 9).

Table 8

Average Severity of Time Out

Total Training	Oct. 2000	Nov. 2000	Dec. 2000	Oct. 2001	Nov. 2001	Dec. 2001	Jan. 2002	Feb. 2002	Mar. 2002
5 Days	1.89	1.67	1.52	3.44	2.67	2.12	2.6	2.68	2.43
2 Days	1.72	1.82	1.89	3.13	1.78	2.2	2.33	2.57	2.54
No Days	1.66	1.52	1.64	2.88	2.83	2.57	3	2.41	2.63
Total	1.8	1.71	1.68	3.14	2.26	2.3	2.63	2.61	2.5

Table 9

Pre- and Post-Intervention Paired Sample T-Test Results for Average Severity of Time-Outs

Time Period	Sig. (2-tailed)
Oct 2000 / Oct 2001	0.005
Nov 2000 / Nov 2001	0.708
Dec 2000 / Dec 2001	0.031

Discussion

In looking at levels of stress among staff members involved with this study, several factors bear noting. First, stress levels at the final data collection increased for all staff members. It is likely that the course of the school year in itself is a source of stress which is not easily influenced by external factors. In addition, events related to national safety and security (i.e., September 11th) have reportedly increased stress levels of all people

across the country. Similarly, although a measure of "Teacher Stress" was used, there is no way to isolate the school environment from individual staff members' personal lives. (Although proponents of LSCI would most likely argue that the skills learned in the training can be effectively utilized in one's daily life as a way to enhance communication skills.) Lastly, as alluded to earlier, without randomized groups, there is no way to isolate, and thus control for, the confound created by those staff who voluntarily attended additional training offered during summer vacation. It is likely that those staff members are less stressed in general due to factors such as wanting to make a difference, liking their jobs, and wanting to do well at their jobs. These staff members are also more likely to make a conscious effort to apply skills learned in the training to their daily lives - both in and out of the classroom.

In looking at all staff members, regardless of training sessions attended, levels of stress remained fairly constant (with the greatest increase in stress noted at the last data collection). Those staff members that attended all five days of training began the pre-intervention period by reporting stress levels much lower than the staff as a whole. Similarly, those that ended up attending none of the training dates reported stress levels higher than the staff as a whole during pre-intervention periods.

Although reported stress levels for staff attending all five days of training increased steadily over time, levels were still lower than those reported by those who attended no training as well as the staff as a whole, although these results were not statistically significant. Lowest post-intervention stress levels were reported by those staff that attended two days of training. This provides an initial indication that perhaps having the basic level of information (knowledge of the conflict cycle, how to acknowledge the feelings behind behavior, and how to establish a non judgmental time line) can decrease reported stress levels. It is possible that those that attended all five days of training received too much information with insufficient opportunity to become comfortable with the techniques and procedures. This, coupled with the administrative mandate to utilize

the techniques regardless of personal feelings/comfort levels could have resulted in more stress.

A necessary part of LSCI training is refresher courses offered at least once per year. It is likely that any beneficial effects of the training need to be reinforced through such a refresher. This may provide some insight into stress level increases across the board during the last post-intervention data collection period, thus signifying the need for retraining/refreshing.

The data related to number of time out incidents is consistent with initial predictions. During the post-intervention training, average number of time out incidents decreased notably, more so for those staff that attended more training. Although the decrease was influenced by the administrative mandate to do so, teachers would not have been able to comply with the mandate without use of the LSCI training techniques. This statement is supported by the finding that despite the mandate effects on post-intervention averages, those staff that attended all five days of the training were below the average for the entire program regardless of training attended.

In terms of minutes spent in time out and severity of time out, the data seemingly contradicted predictions, as increases in both were noted post-intervention. However, it is possible that because teachers were utilizing their newly learned skills to diffuse situations in the classroom, those students that did get sent out of the room to time-out were displaying behaviors of a more severe nature than during the pre-intervention period. Perhaps these numbers represent students that could not be de-escalated by acknowledging their feelings and the conflict cycle -- thus their behaviors were more severe and they required more time to settle down in time out. It is also conceivable that the increase in minutes in time out is tied to staff members taking the time to conduct full LSCI interviews -- discussing feelings, perceptions, behaviors, and planning/practicing for the future.

Although this study provides much useful information, its limitations must be acknowledged. The population in this study is limited to one special education program in upstate New York. It is thus difficult to generalize to other settings. This study includes no randomization of groups. Because this program recognized the benefit of LSCI training, attendance was mandatory and subsequent randomization of groups was impossible. Although in some sense, the group that attended no training was used as a "control group", negative effects of this included the inherent characterlogical differences between those staff who did not attend any training despite administrative mandate and/or those staff who willingly gave up three days of their summer vacation to attend the follow-up training session. Numbers in each group must also be considered. Although the entire sample consisted of 34 participants, only 21 of these completed all four TSI questionnaires, which was required for calculation of pre-intervention and post-intervention mean scores. Most importantly, the success of this technique is largely dependent on the amount of effort put forth by participants. It doesn't matter how much training is attended if staff do not attempt to utilize the techniques in their classrooms. With this particular program, this issue is minimized, as the administration is making a conscious effort to encourage utilization of the techniques. This attitude is one which facilitates the successful utilization of Life Space Crisis Intervention techniques.

Many staff members responded with qualitative feedback related to the program's use of LSCI techniques on a day to day basis. As with much of the LSI/LSCI research, this information speaks volumes more than statistical data. Some of this information is now offered as a conclusion to this research effort. Staff reported feeling that use of the techniques resulted in: less confrontation/reactivity, fewer restraints, fewer power struggles, and **enhanced relationships** between adults and students. Furthermore, staff felt that the students experienced a greater sense of independence and success when required to come up with alternative plans and behaviors with the help of staff, as opposed to being told what to do by staff. The "permission" to act out is removed - teachers work

hard to avoid power struggles, and the students seem to feel more respected - thus giving more respect to adults. In addition to benefits directly related to the students, the staff indicated that there was a greater sense of team work, that a greater sense of consistency or continuity existed, and that they felt more empowered to deal with potential problems. When students are sent to time out, there is now less associated stigma, less negative spiraling behaviors amongst the students, and more positive re-entries into class. Staff reported an overall feeling of working towards solutions rather than focusing on punishment. All of these comments are supportive in improving schools, decreasing violence, and positively changing attitudes.

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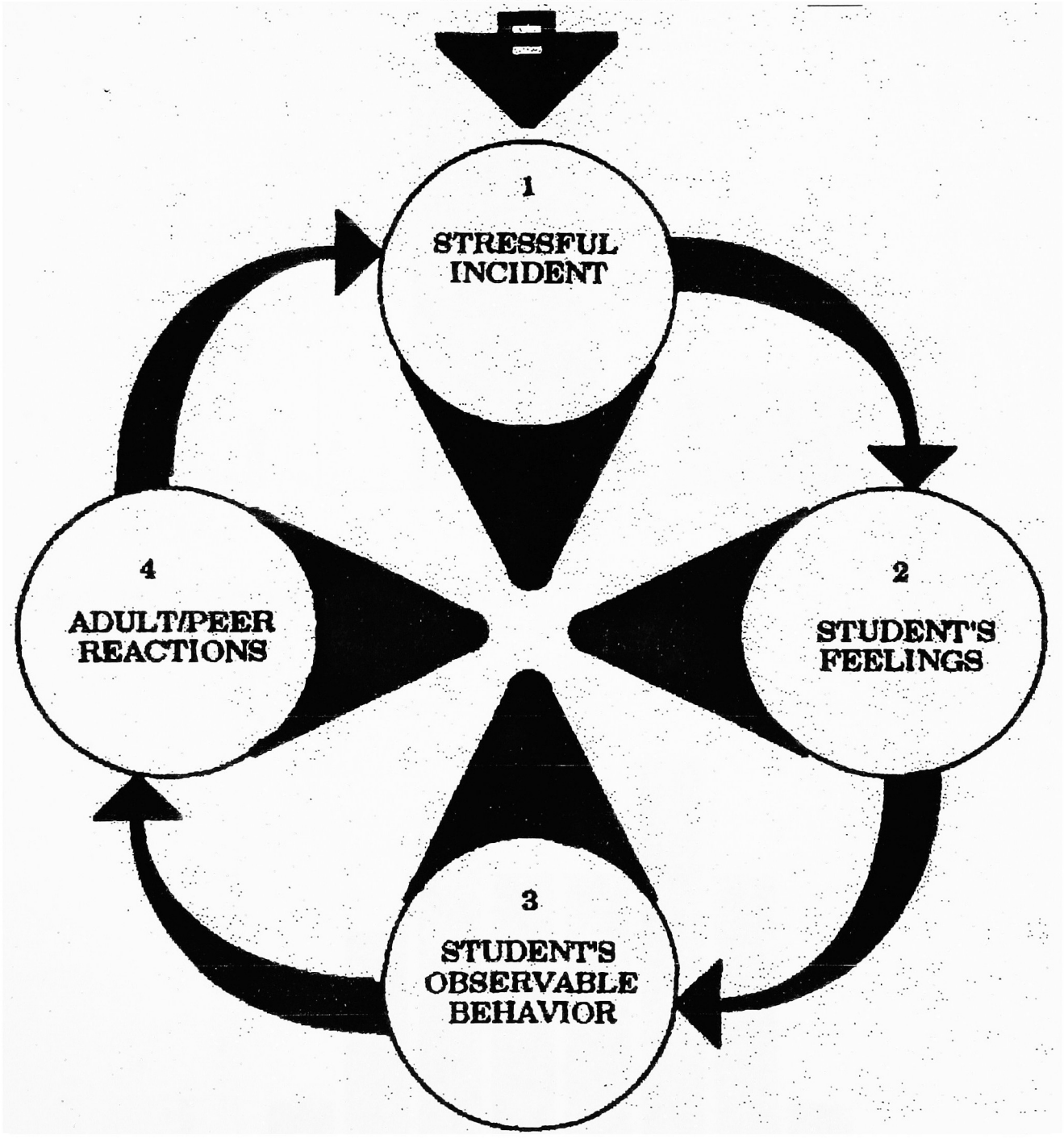
Appendix A

The Conflict Cycle



Appendix B

Demographic Information

Figure B1. Gender of participants.

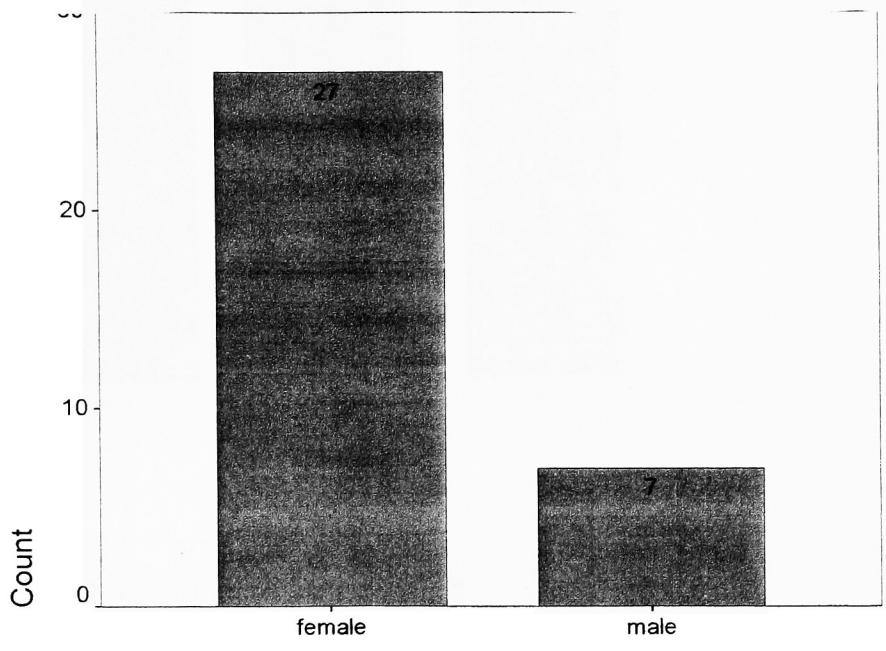


Figure B2. Age range of participants.

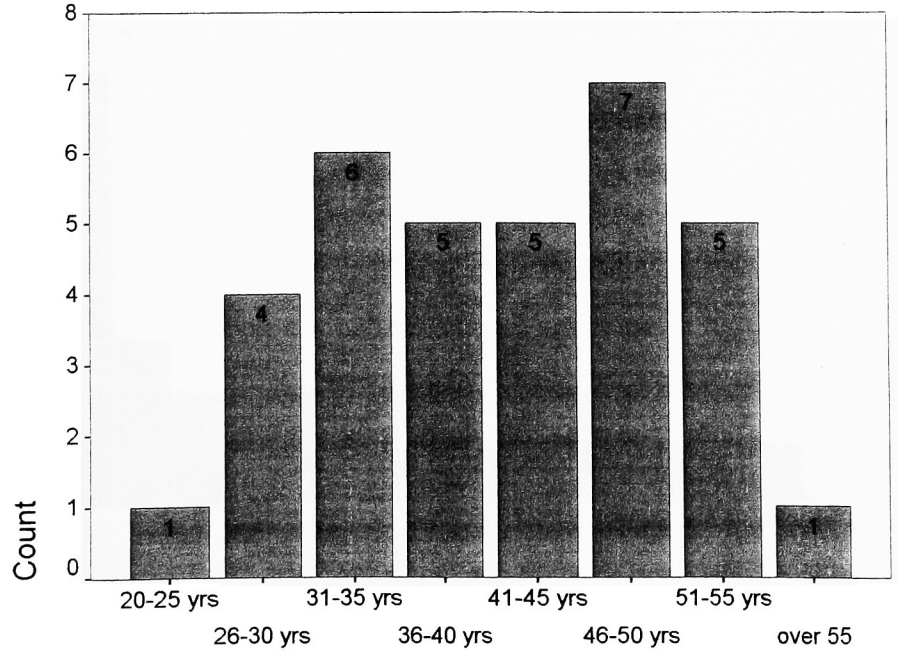


Figure B3. Positions held by participants.

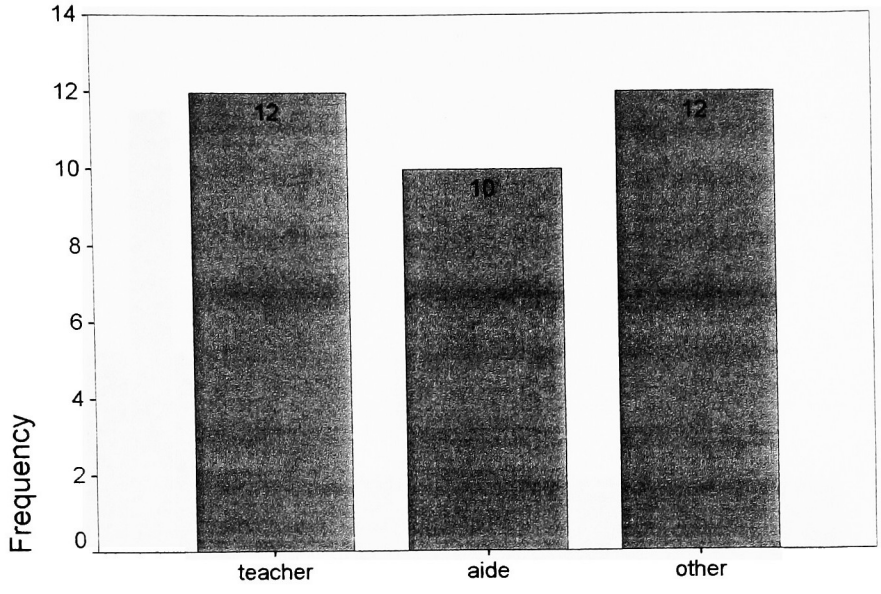


Figure B4. Years participants have been in current position.

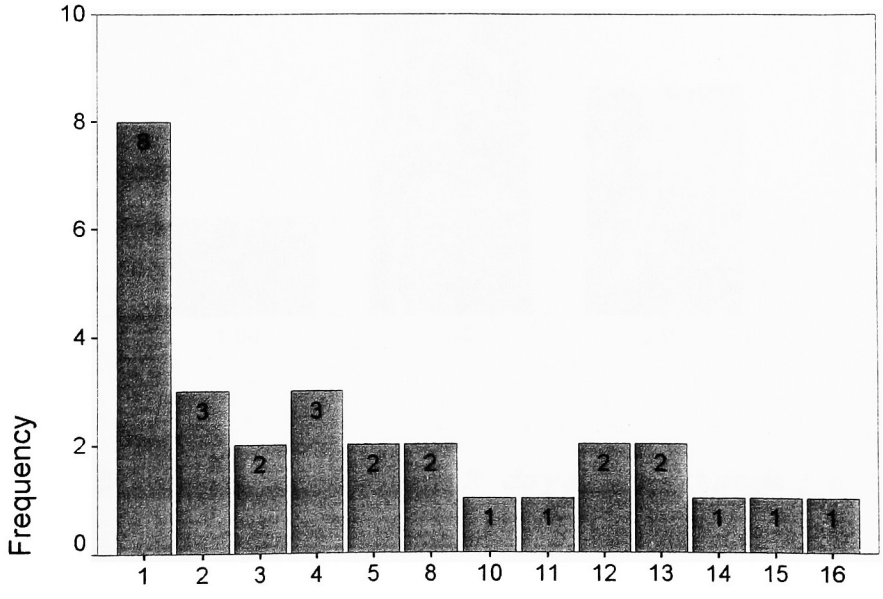


Figure B5. Years participants have worked with children.

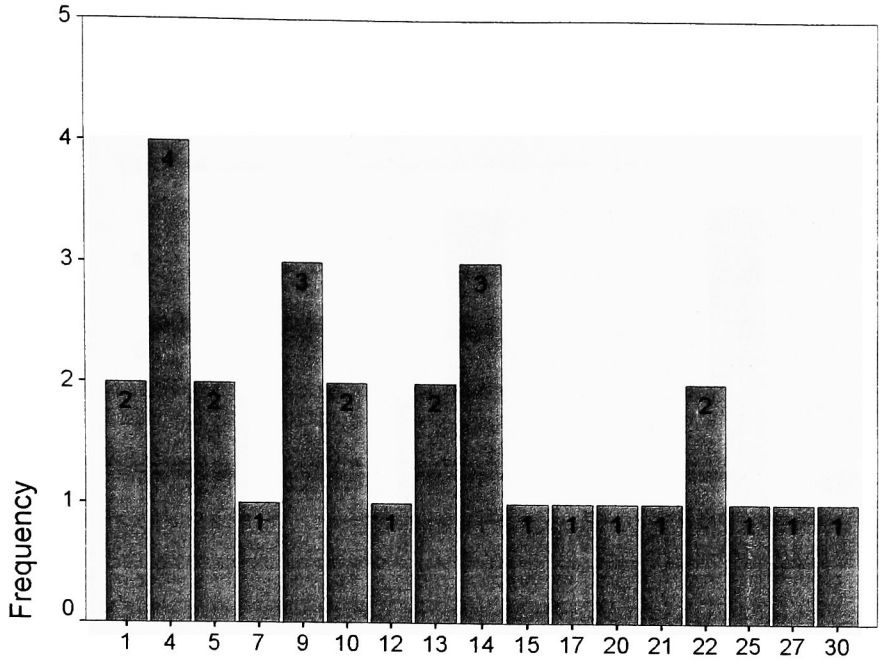
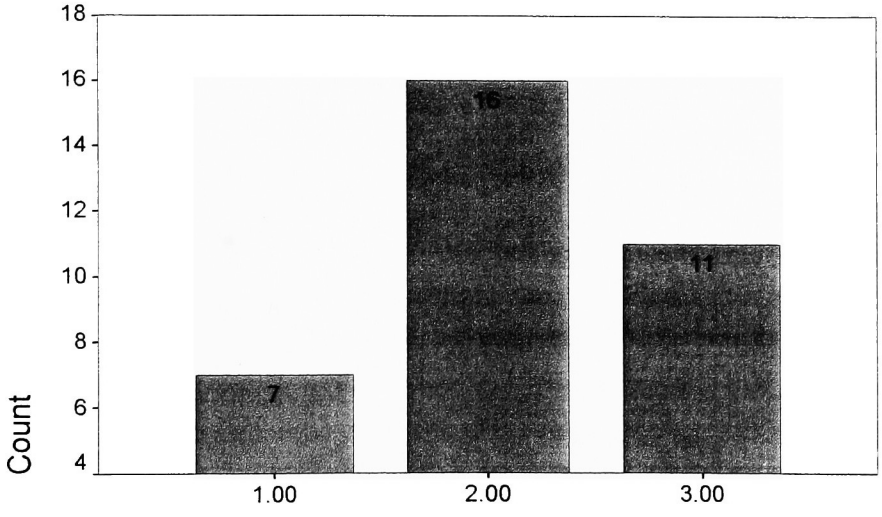
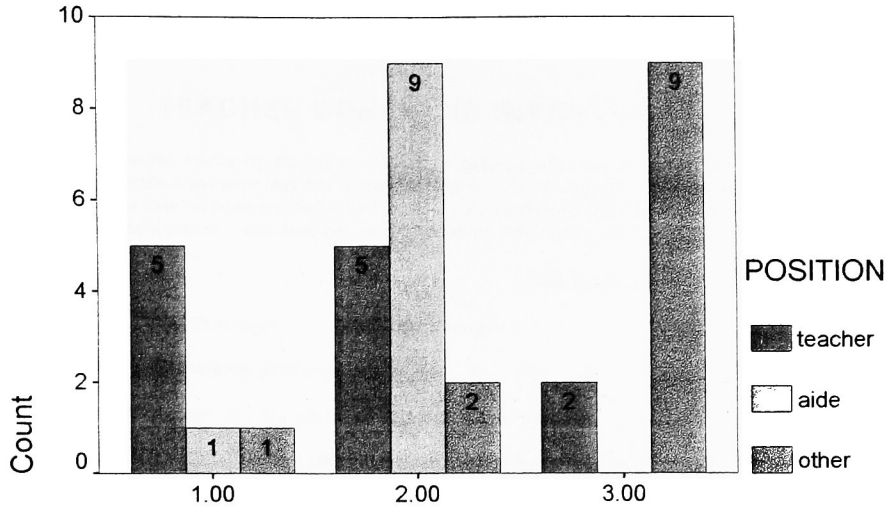


Figure B6. Amount of training attended by participants.



1=attended 5 days, 2=attended 2 days, 3=attended no days

Figure B7. Amount of training attended by participants in terms of position.



Appendix C

TSI Samples

Sample C1. TSI questionnaire with scoring guide.

TEACHER CONCERNS INVENTORY

The following are a number of teacher concerns. Please identify those factors that cause you stress in your present position. Read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. Then, indicate how strong the feeling is when you experience it by circling the appropriate number on the 5-point scale. If you have not experienced this feeling, or if the item is inappropriate for your position, circle number 1 (no strength; not noticeable). The rating scale is shown at the top of each page.

	How Strong?				
Examples	No Strength				Major Strength
I feel insufficiently prepared for my job	1	2	3	4	(5)

If you feel very strongly that you are insufficiently prepared for your job, you would circle number 5.

I feel that if I step back in either effort or commitment, I may be seen as less competent.

(1) 2 3 4 5

If you never feel this way, and the feeling does not have noticeable strength, you would circle number 1.

HOW STRONG? ?	1 no strength; not noticeable	2 mild strength; barely noticeable	3 medium strength; moderately noticeable	4 great strength; very noticeable	5 major strength; extremely noticeable

TIME MANAGEMENT

1. I easily overcommit myself.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I become impatient if others do things too slowly.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have to try doing more than one thing at a time.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I have little time to relax/enjoy the time of day.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I think about unrelated matters during conversations.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I feel uncomfortable wasting time.	1	2	3	4	5
7. There isn't enough time to get things done.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I rush in my speech.	1	2	3	4	5

Add items 1 through 8; divide by 8; place score in the circle.

WORK-RELATED STRESSORS

9. There is little time to prepare for my lessons/responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5
10. There is too much work to do.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The pace of the school day is too fast.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My caseload/class is too big.	1	2	3	4	5
13. My personal priorities are being shortchanged due to time demands.	1	2	3	4	5
14. There is too much administrative paperwork in my job.	1	2	3	4	5

Add items 9 through 14; divide by 6; place score in the circle.

PROFESSIONAL DISTRESS

15. I lack promotion and/or advancement opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I am not progressing in my job as rapidly as I would like.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I need more status and respect on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I receive an inadequate salary for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I lack recognition for the extra work and/or good teaching I do.	1	2	3	4	5

Add items 15 through 19; divide by 5; place score in the circle.

HOW STRONG? ?	1 no strength; not noticeable	2 mild strength; barely noticeable	3 medium strength; moderately noticeable	4 great strength; very noticeable	5 major strength; extremely noticeable

DISCIPLINE AND MOTIVATION

I feel frustrated . . .

20.	. . . because of discipline problems in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	. . . having to monitor pupil behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	. . . because some students would do better if they tried.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	. . . attempting to teach students who are poorly motivated.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	. . . because of inadequate/poorly defined discipline problems.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	. . . when my authority is rejected by pupils/administration.	1	2	3	4	5

Add items 20 through 25; divide by 6; place score in the circle.

PROFESSIONAL INVESTMENT

26.	My personal opinions are not sufficiently aired.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	I lack control over decisions made about classroom/school matters.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	I am not emotionally/intellectually stimulated on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	I lack opportunities for professional improvement.	1	2	3	4	5

Add items 26 through 29; divide by 4; place score in the circle.

EMOTIONAL MANIFESTATIONS

I respond to stress . . .

30.	. . . by feeling insecure.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	. . . by feeling vulnerable.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	. . . by feeling unable to cope.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	. . . by feeling depressed.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	. . . by feeling anxious.	1	2	3	4	5

Add items 30 through 34; divide by 5; place score in the circle.

FATIGUE MANIFESTATIONS

I respond to stress . . .

35.	. . . by sleeping more than usual.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	. . . by procrastinating.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	. . . by becoming fatigued in a very short time.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	. . . with physical exhaustion.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	. . . with physical weakness.	1	2	3	4	5

Add items 35 through 39; divide by 5; place score in the circle.

CARDIOVASCULAR MANIFESTATIONS

I respond to stress . . .

40.	. . . with feelings of increased blood pressure.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	. . . with feeling of heart pounding or racing.	1	2	3	4	5
42.	. . . with rapid and/or shallow breath.	1	2	3	4	5

Add items 40 through 42; divide by 3; place score in the circle.

HOW STRONG? ?	1 no strength; not noticeable	2 mild strength; barely noticeable	3 medium strength; moderately noticeable	4 great strength; very noticeable	5 major strength; extremely noticeable

GASTRONOMICAL MANIFESTATIONS

I respond to stress . . .

43. . . . with stomach pain of extended duration.	1	2	3	4	5
44. . . . with stomach cramps.	1	2	3	4	5
45. . . . with stomach acid.	1	2	3	4	5

Add items 43 through 45; divide by 3; place score in the circle.

BEHAVIORAL MANIFESTATIONS

I respond to stress . . .

46. . . . by using over-the-counter drugs.	1	2	3	4	5
47. . . . by using prescription drugs.	1	2	3	4	5
48. . . . by using alcohol.	1	2	3	4	5
49. . . . by calling in sick.	1	2	3	4	5

Add items 46 through 49; divide by 4; place score in the circle.

TOTAL SCORE (add all circles; divide by 10) _____

Demographic Variables

Your sex: _____
Your age: _____
What level students do you teach?

Number of years you have taught? _____
How many students do you teach each day? _____
(circle the rest of your answers)

Elementary Middle School Secondary

With what type of students do you work? Nonhandicapped Handicapped
Which degrees do you have? Bachelor's Master's Doctorate
Do you and your peers support one another when needed? Yes No
Do you and your supervisors support one another when needed? Yes No

Sample C2. TSI questionnaire as given to participants.

SCHOOL RELATED CONCERNS INVENTORY

The following are a number to school related concerns. Please identify those factors that cause you stress in your present position. Read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. Then indicate how strong the feeling is when you experience it by circling the appropriate number on the 5-point scale. If you have not experienced this feeling, or if the item is inappropriate for your position, circle number 1 (no strength; not noticeable). The rating scale is shown at the top of each page.

How strong is the feeling?

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
no strength not noticeable	mild strength barely noticeable	medium strength moderately noticeable	great strength very noticeable	major strength extremely noticeable

Example:

I feel insufficiently prepared for my job. 1 2 3 4 5

- If you feel very strongly that you are insufficiently prepared for your job you would circle number 5. If you feel that you are sufficiently prepared, or have never felt insufficiently prepared for your job, you would circle 1.

1	2	3	4	5
no strength not noticeable	mild strength barely noticeable	medium strength moderately noticeable	great strength very noticeable	major strength extremely noticeable

1. I easily over-commit myself.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I become impatient if others do things too slowly.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have to try doing more than one thing at a time.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I have little time to relax/enjoy the time of day.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I think about unrelated matters during conversation.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I feel uncomfortable wasting time.	1	2	3	4	5
7. There isn't enough time to get things done.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I rush in my speech.	1	2	3	4	5
9. There is little time to prepare for my lessons/ responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5
10. There is too much work to do.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The pace of the school day is too fast.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My caseload/class is too big.	1	2	3	4	5
13. My personal priorities are being shortchanged due to time demands.	1	2	3	4	5
14. There is too much administrative paperwork in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I lack promotion and/or advancement opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I am not progressing in my job as rapidly as I would like.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I need more status and respect on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I receive an inadequate salary for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I lack recognition for the extra work and/or good teaching I do.	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
no strength not noticeable	mild strength barely noticeable	medium strength moderately noticeable	great strength very noticeable	major strength extremely noticeable

I feel frustrated....

20....because of discipline problems in my classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
21....having to monitor pupil behavior.	1	2	3	4	5
22....because some students would do better if they tried.	1	2	3	4	5
23....attempting to teach students who are poorly motivated.	1	2	3	4	5
24....because of inadequate/poorly defined discipline procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
25....when my authority is rejected by pupils/ administration.	1	2	3	4	5
26. My personal opinions are not sufficiently aired.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I lack control over decisions made about classroom/ school matters.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I am not emotionally/intellectually stimulated on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I lack opportunities for professional improvement.	1	2	3	4	5

I respond to stress...

30....by feeling insecure.	1	2	3	4	5
31....by feeling vulnerable.	1	2	3	4	5
32....by feeling unable to cope.	1	2	3	4	5
33....by feeling depressed.	1	2	3	4	5
34....by feeling anxious.	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
no strength not noticeable	mild strength barely noticeable	medium strength moderately noticeable	great strength very noticeable	major strength extremely noticeable

I respond to stress...

35....by sleeping more than usual.	1	2	3	4	5
36....by procrastinating.	1	2	3	4	5
37....by becoming fatigued in a very short time.	1	2	3	4	5
38....with physical exhaustion.	1	2	3	4	5
39....with physical weakness.	1	2	3	4	5
40....with feelings of increased blood pressure.	1	2	3	4	5
41....with feelings of heart pounding.	1	2	3	4	5
42....with rapid and/or shallow breath.	1	2	3	4	5
43....with stomach pain of extended duration.	1	2	3	4	5
44....with stomach cramps.	1	2	3	4	5
45....with stomach acid.	1	2	3	4	5
46....by using over-the-counter drugs.	1	2	3	4	5
47....by using prescription drugs.	1	2	3	4	5
48....by using alcohol.	1	2	3	4	5
49....by calling in sick.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D

Legal Information

Figure D1. Letter of consent from LSCI representative.

WAYNE-
FINGER LAKES
Board of
Cooperative
Educational
Services

Joseph J. Marinelli, Ph.D.
District Superintendent

Eisenhower Building
131 Drumlin Court
Newark NY 14513-1863
(315) 332-2107
FAX (315) 332-2117
MSteele@edutech.org

Marla Steele
Director of Staff Development and
Instructional Technology

To Whom It May Concern:

I am aware of Michele Helfand's intent to track the success of a Life Space Crisis Intervention training delivered by my agency. I have been advised of the proposed means of data collection and advised of both my program's and the individual school's right to withdraw from the study at any time. I have been assured that reported data will be based on group effects, and that all school personnel and students will remain completely anonymous. The individual school's decision to participate in this study will in no way effect the scheduled training delivery. Ms. Helfand has this program's permission to request participation from the administrators of the [redacted]-BOCES program which is scheduled to receive the LSCI training in June 2001.

Thank you,

Mary Beth Hewitt

Mary Beth Hewitt

Figure D2. Letter of consent from educational facility administrator.

BOCES An Educational Plus

For Candor • Dryden • George Junior Republic • Groton • Ithaca • Lansing • Newfield • South Seneca • Trumansburg

Michael R. Pronti,
Director, Education of Exceptional Pupils

To Whom It May Concern:

The administrators of [redacted] BOCES are aware of Michele Helfand's intent to track the success of an LSCI training program through collection and analysis of behavioral incident forms and teacher responses to a self-report measure. Ms. Helfand has our permission to review archival data and track incoming incident reports. Teachers will be advised of their right to refuse participation and/or withdraw from participation at any time. We are also aware that the school has the right to withdraw this permission at any time. We have been assured that reported data will be based on group effects, and that all school personnel and students will remain completely anonymous. In addition, individual teachers and students will not be identified to the administration on the basis of outcome criteria (i.e.: rates of involvement with discipline referrals or responses to the self report measure). We are interested in the results of such a study/analysis as an aid in determining the efficacy of requiring teachers to attend similar training programs in the future.

Sincerely,

[redacted]
Principal
11/21/00

Figure D3. Introductory letter to all school staff members.

A1

Dear Staff Member:

My name is Michele Helfand, and I am a graduate student at Rochester Institute of Technology's School Psychology program in Rochester, New York. As part of my Master's Thesis, I am looking at school staff concerns throughout the school year. In particular I am interested in environmental factors which may influence teaching. The principal of your school is aware of this study, and has given me permission to request your participation.

I am asking teachers, aides, and other classroom staff to fill out a self-report measure listing 49 statements to which you would circle 1-5 depending on the degree of agreement. This measure will be filled out by each person five times throughout the school year (through May 2002). Participation is voluntary, and people have the right to withdraw participation at any time. All responses will be kept confidential, and only group effects will be reported (individual responses will not be reported). This means that your individual responses will not be made available to school administration.

I realize that everyone is extremely busy. As an incentive for participation, **those that complete all five surveys will be entered into a drawing with a chance to win $150.** Responses will be anonymous - each participant will be assigned a letter/number code (see top corner) for tracking and enrollment in the raffle.

Thank you in advance for your consideration. I will be contacting staff individually (within the next three weeks) to answer any initial questions and present a letter of consent for signing. If at any time you have questions or concerns regarding this study, please feel free to contact me at (716) 473-8626 or via email at mhelfan1@rochester.rr.com. I look forward to our working together.

Sincerely,

Michele Helfand
Rochester Institute of Technology

Figure D4. Informed consent for participants.

Informed Consent

I understand that Michele Helfand is a second year RIT School Psychology graduate student working to complete her thesis. I agree to participate in Michele Helfand's study by completing five, 49 item self-report questionnaires on teacher concerns throughout the school year. Each questionnaire requires approximately 15 minutes to complete. I am aware that participation is voluntary, and that I have the right to withdraw my participation at any time. I am also aware that my participation status will also remain confidential. I have been assured that individual responses will be kept confidential, and that only group effects will be reported (individual responses will not be reported or made available to school administrators). I understand that by completing all six questionnaires throughout the school year I will be eligible to win $150.00 (if my name is drawn from names of those who completed all five questionnaires). I am aware that if at any time I have questions about these procedures I can contact Michele Helfand at (716) 473-8626.

Name_____

Circle One: Teacher Teacher's Aide Other _____
(Please write in position)

Date_____

Signature_____

MY STUDY ID CODE IS: _____

If at any time you have questions or concerns related to this study, do not hesitate to contact Michele Helfand at mhelfan1@rochester.rr.com

Figure D5. Demographic information questionnaire.

The following information is being collected only for the purpose of statistical analysis. I want to stress the fact that all information will remain confidential. Final data will be reported in terms of group effect only, with no individual information reported.

Position - please check one:

_____ Teacher
_____ Teacher's Aide/Classroom Aide
_____ Other (please specify _____)

Gender - please check one:

_____ Male
_____ Female

Age Range - please check one:

_____ 20-25
_____ 26-30
_____ 31-35
_____ 36-40
_____ 41-45
_____ 46-50
_____ 51-55
_____ 55 +

Years in Current Position - please check one:

_____ less than 1 year
_____ 1-3 years
_____ 4-6 years
_____ 7-10 years
_____ 10-15 years
_____ 16-20 years
_____ 20-30 years
_____ more than 30 years

Figure D6. Closing letter to participants.

Michele Helfand
85 Harding Road
Rochester, NY 14612
(716) 865-9145
MicheleHelfand@msn.com

April 10, 2002

To: All [redacted] BOCES Participants in RIT Research Study

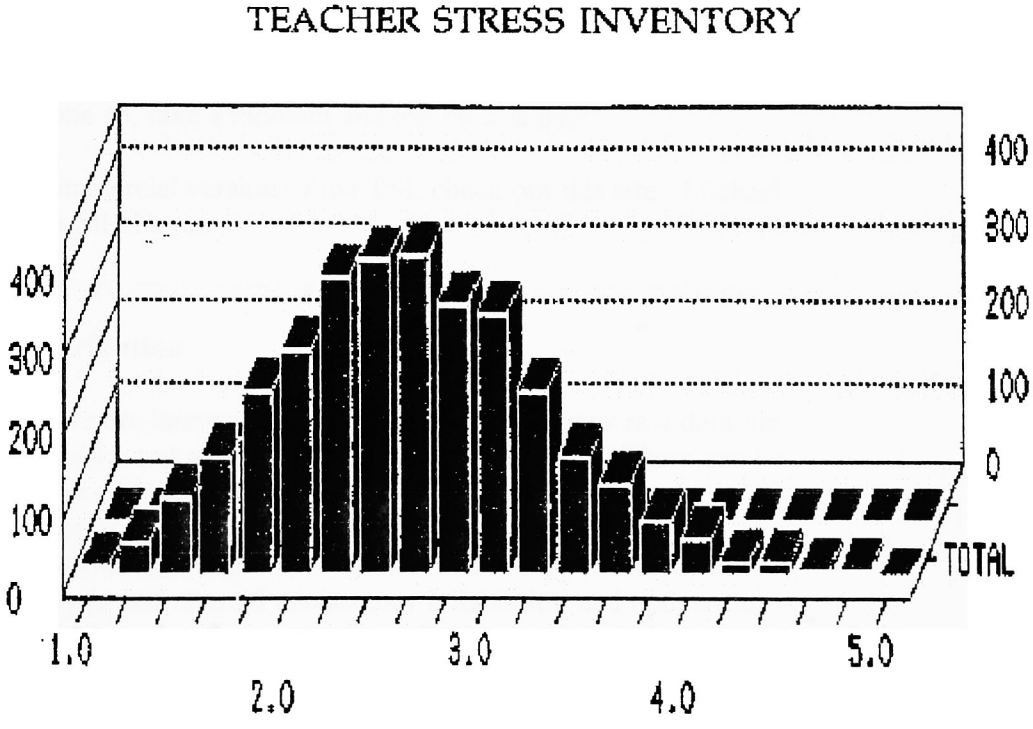
I would like to take this opportunity to thank those of you who faithfully participated in this research project. By taking the time out of your mornings to respond to the four questionnaires, you have provided me with the necessary data in order to continue my project. For this I thank you, as without your participation, my work would have been impossible. Today marks the last data collection session, and as promised, those of you who have completed all four questionnaires will be entered into the raffle for $150 (which will be drawn at the end of today's session). My actual written thesis will be completed by the end of May. Anyone interested in a copy of this paper, or anyone with questions related to my project, can contact me at the above email address. Again, I thank you all for your time and effort.

Sincerely,

Michele Helfand
Rochester Institute of Technology

Appendix E

TSI Total Stress Score Distribution



Welcome to the *Teacher Stress Inventory* Site...

Thanks for your interest in the Teacher Stress Inventory (TSI). Though the Inventory is out of print, there is still considerable interest in its use among Master- and Doctoral-level students. As a support to their research activities, TSI-related information is being offered here free of charge. Also offered is the use of the Inventory, at no charge, for research purposes.

Permission for Use

Consider this memo as permission to use the TSI at no cost to you; you may want to print this for your committee and for the Graduate School. Usually, they want an need some proof that you are legally using a scale. Please honor the copyright policy by using the Inventory for only research and other not-for-profit purposes. You will need to provide us with information about who you are, however, so that we can stay in touch with you... If you haven't already done so, take a moment and log on as a user...

For the commercial version of the TSI, check out this site: Michael Courtney's Site Here...

Data Contribution

In return, we are interested in receiving a copy of your raw data file, your data bible, and the results chapter of your thesis. These can be submitted in ASCII text form (or the data in either Excel Spreadsheet or Access Database format) via email to Fimian@InstructionalTech.Net. In the future, we'll reanalyze the factor analysis and internal consistency reliabilities, and update this online TSI Manual with your findings. With your permission, a separate page on this site will be established that contains your summary chapter. Please include any references that your work may have with respect to Dissertations Abstracts or other abstract service so that your work may be reviewed online by other TSI users and potential users. A summary will also be added to the "Other Variables" section of this site. Include your email address as well, so that users who do have questions can easily get in touch with you...

User info can be proved using this information form...

Rest assured, your data will be used in no other way...